



Prevalence and Predictors of Depression Among Pregnant Women Attending Antenatal Clinic (ANC) in a Tertiary Health Facility in a District of West Gujarat: A Cross-Sectional Study

Dr. Nidhi Trivedi ¹, Dr. Yogesh M ¹, Dr. Viral Shah ², Dr. Rohan Kumar Gandhi ¹, Dr. Naresh Makwana ^{*3}, Shaily Agrawal ¹, Dr. Dipesh V. Parmar ⁵

¹PG Resident, ²Associate Professor, ³Associate Professor, ⁵Head of Department, Department of Community Medicine, Shri MP Shah Govt Medical College, Jamnagar, India.

*Corresponding Author: Dr. Naresh Makwana; yogeshbruce23@gmail.com

Received 20 May 2023;

Accepted 10 June 2023;

Published 14 June 2023

Abstract

Background: Depression among pregnant women attending ANC is a prevalent and concerning issue with potential implications for maternal and fetal health outcomes. This study aims to contribute to the existing body of knowledge by examining the prevalence and predictors of depression among pregnant women in a district of West Gujarat. **Methodology:** The study was an Observational cross-sectional study conducted among pregnant women attending the ANC clinic of Tertiary Care Hospital, Western Gujarat during the period of Jan 2023 to May 2023. So, the Total sample of Pregnant Women was 266. **Results:** In the present study, the prevalence of depression was found to be 37%. Lack of partner or social support, history of abuse or domestic violence, previous history of psychiatric illness, poor marital relationship, stressful life events, a negative attitude towards the pregnancy, and lack of social support are some of the factors associated with antenatal depression. Women with a previous history of depression, Counterpart tobacco consumption status, and those who have experienced intimate partner violence are at higher risk of developing antenatal depression ($P < 0.05$). **Conclusion:** Antenatal depression is a common mental health issue that can affect women during pregnancy. Early identification of pregnant women suffering from antenatal depression is important, and relevant support should be provided. Efforts are needed to strengthen or develop protocols for the early identification of pregnant women suffering from antenatal depression and provide relevant support.

Keywords: Antenatal Depression, ANC clinic, Antenatal Mothers, Tertiary Care Hospital.

Introduction

Depression is a significant mental health issue that affects individuals across various age groups and populations, including pregnant women. The prevalence of depression among pregnant women attending antenatal clinics (ANC) in tertiary health facilities has gained increasing attention due to its potential adverse effects on both maternal and fetal health outcomes.

Depression during pregnancy has been recognized as a common psychiatric disorder worldwide, with a reported prevalence ranging from 10% to 20% [1]. These figures indicate that a substantial number of pregnant women are affected by depression, making it a significant public health concern. The consequences of untreated or underdiagnosed depression in pregnancy can be severe, including adverse effects on the mother's and the developing fetus's physical and emotional well-being.

Several studies have identified various factors that contribute to the development of depression among pregnant women attending ANC. Socio-demographic factors, such as lower income, limited education, unemployment, and single marital status, have been consistently associated with an increased risk of depression [2,3].

Additionally, psychosocial factors such as lack of social support, stressful life events, history of abuse, and previous episodes of depression have also been linked to the occurrence of depression during pregnancy [4,5].

Furthermore, physiological factors, such as hormonal changes and genetic predisposition, may also play a role in the development of depression among pregnant women. Fluctuations in hormone levels, particularly estrogen, and progesterone, have been implicated in the pathophysiology of mood disorders [6]. Additionally, genetic factors, including a family history of depression or other mental illnesses, may increase an individual's susceptibility to depression during pregnancy [7].

The impact of maternal depression on pregnancy outcomes has been extensively studied. Several studies have demonstrated that untreated depression during pregnancy is associated with adverse effects on both maternal and fetal health. Maternal depression has been linked to increased risks of preterm birth, low birth weight, preeclampsia, and postpartum depression [8,9]. Moreover, children born to mothers with untreated depression may experience developmental delays, behavioral problems, and emotional difficulties later in life [10].

In India, studies have reported the prevalence of antenatal depression to range from 9.18% to 65%. A study conducted in Navi Mumbai found that the prevalence of depression during pregnancy was 40.89%. Another study in rural Bihar reported a 15-35% prevalence of postnatal depression [11].

Despite the significance of depression among pregnant women attending ANC, limited research has been conducted in the context of India. This study aims to address this research gap and provide valuable insights into the prevalence and predictors of depression among pregnant women in this region. By identifying the factors associated with depression during pregnancy, healthcare providers can develop targeted interventions and support systems to mitigate the adverse effects of depression on maternal and fetal well-being.

Depression among pregnant women attending ANC is a prevalent and concerning issue with potential implications for maternal and fetal health outcomes. This study aims to contribute to the existing body of knowledge by examining the prevalence and predictors of depression among pregnant women in a district of West Gujarat. The findings of this study will help inform healthcare policies, interventions, and support services to improve the mental health and overall well-being of pregnant women in this region

Methodology

The study was an Observational cross-sectional study conducted among pregnant women attending the ANC clinic of Tertiary Care Hospital, Jamnagar during the period of Jan 2023 to May 2023. Sample size: The sample size was calculated using the formulae:

$$N = Z^2 PQ/L^2$$

Where;

Z = 1.96 (at 95% confidence level or 5% level of significance)

P = Prevalence (prevalence of Depression from the reference study i.e., 21%) [12]

L = Allowable error, which was taken 5% as absolute

Q = (100 - P) = 79%

Hence, the minimum required sample size calculated $(1.96)^2 \times 21 \times (79)/5 \times 5 = 265$, the Total sample size of Pregnant Women in the study was 266.

Only those who were pregnant, attending ANC clinic, and giving consent were considered eligible for the study. Those who do not give consent, those on follow-up visits, and those assessed to be requiring urgent medical attention were excluded from the study. Informed written consent was taken in their own local language. Self-structured standard questionnaires contain Socio-demographic Characteristics, Obstetric Details, Social factor, and the PHQ-9 scale (Patient Health Questionnaire -9). PHQ-9 was used to assess the depressive symptoms among Pregnant Women. PHQ-9 is a nine items tool and for every item, there is a value set from 0 to 3, with a total range of 0–27 response scale. The value is 0 (not at all), 1 (several days), 2 (more than half of the days), or 3 (nearly every day). By adding these values, the study participants will be considered depressed if the PHQ-9 score is greater than or equal to 10. The PHQ-9 appears to be a reliable and valid instrument that may be used to diagnose major depressive disorders among adults with a sensitivity of 86% and a specificity of 67% [13]. Concerning the accuracy of PHQ-9 to diagnose depression, a cut-off score of 10 or above can be used regardless of age category [14].

Statistical Analysis

Data which was obtained were entered in Microsoft Excel (2006). SPSS (version 26) software was utilized for statistical analysis. Descriptive data would be presented in frequencies and percentages using Tables. A bivariate analysis was conducted to determine the association between outcome variables and each independent variable. In bivariate analysis, variables whose P-value < 0.05 were considered as candidate variables for the multivariable logistic regression model to identify independent predictors by controlling confounding variables. P -value < 0.05 were considered statistically significant and P-value < 0.001 were considered highly significant.

Results

Table 1: Distribution of various socioeconomic variables among study participants (n=266)

Variables	n	Percentage (%)
Age (years)		
≤30	238	89.5
>30	28	10.5
Occupation		
Working	18	6.8
Homemaker	248	93.2
Education		
Illiterate	88	33.1
Literate	178	66.9
Religion		
Hindu	190	71.4
Muslim	76	28.6
Socio-Economic Class (According to modified BG prasad classification)		
Upper class	134	50.4
Lower Class	132	59.6
Family type		
Joint	120	45.1
Nuclear	146	54.9
Overcrowding		
Present	128	48.1
Absent	138	51.9
House		
Owned	214	80.5
Rented	52	19.5

In this study, out of 266 participants, 90% were below and equal to 30 years of age, only 7 % were working,33% were illiterate, and 60 % were lower class (According to modified BG prasad class, Class

1 and 2 were considered as Upper class and Class 3,4 5 were considered as a Lower class), and 80 % lives in an owned house.

Table 2: Association between Socio-demographic characteristics and prenatal depression.

Variable	depression (n=97)	No depression (n=169)	P-value	COR(CI)	AOR(CI)
Age (years)					
≤30	85(88)	153(91)			
			0.458	0.7(0.3-1.6)	-
>30	12(12)	16(9)			
Occupation					
Working	5(5)	13(8)			
			0.428	1.5(0.5-4.4)	-
Homemaker	92(95)	156(92)			
Education					
Illiterate	40(41)	48(28)			
			0.032*	1.7(1.05-2.9) *	1.7(1.1-2.9) *
Literate	57(59)	122(72)			
Religion					
Hindu	62(64)	128(76)			
			0.04*	1.76(1.02-3.03) *	0.56(0.34-1.08)
Muslim	35(36)	41(24)			
Socio-Economic Status (Modified BG prasad Classification)					
Upper Class (Class-1 &2)	57(59)	77(46)			
			0.038*	1.70(1.03-2.82) *	2.56(1.4-4.5) *
Lower Class (Class 3,4 &5)	40(41)	92(54)			
Family type					
Joint	36(37)	84(50)			
			0.047*	1.67(1.01-2.79) *	2.009(1.2-3.6) *
Nuclear	61(63)	85(50)			
Overcrowding					
Present	55(57)	73(43)			
			0.034*	1.7(1.04-2.85) *	0.478(0.2-0.8)*
Absent	42(43)	96(57)			
House					
Owned	79(81))	135(80)			
			0.757	1.11(0.586-2.09)	-
Rented	18(19)	34(20)			

COR-Crude Odds Ratio, AOR-Adjusted Odds Ratio, P-value<0.05*, P<0.001**

Table 2 shows the Association between Socio-demographic characteristics and Antenatal depression, which shows Education, religion, Socioeconomic status, Family type, and overcrowding were Statistically Associated with Antenatal depression in bivariate analysis but while in multivariate analysis education, socioeconomic class, family type, and overcrowding were associated. Illiterate was 1.7 times the odds of getting depression than literate, Nuclear

families have 2 times the odds of getting Antenatal depression than Joint families. The OR of 0.478 suggests that participants without overcrowding had 0.478 times lower odds of having depression compared to those in overcrowding. Regarding socioeconomic status lower class participants have 2.5 times the odds of getting depression than the upper class.

Table 3: Obstetric factors and gender issues in prenatal depression (n=266)

Variables	Depression (n=97)	No depression (n=169)	p-value	COR(CI)	AOR(CI)
Age at marriage (years)					
≤18	22(23)	21(12)			
			0.02*	2.07(1.07-4)	2.(1.2-4.2) *
>18	75(77)	148(88)			
Gravida					
1	36(37)	85(50)			
			0.03*	1.7(1.02-2.85)*	0.94(0.5-1.7)
>1	61(63)	84(50)			
Trimester					
First trimester	1(1)	25(15)			
			0.02*	23.4(3.05-180)	23(2.8-190) *
Second trimester	45(46)	48(28)		1	1
Third trimester	51(53)	96(57)		0.036*	1.62(1.1-2.85) *
History of abortion					
Yes	26(27)	26(15)			

			0.02*	2.(1.09-3.72)*	1.26(1.1-2.6) *
No	71(73)	143(85)			
Pregnancy planned or not					
Planned	78(80)	151(89)			
			0.04*	2.(1.01-4.12) *	1.84(1.2-3.9) *
Unplanned	19(20)	18(11)			
Pregnancy wanted or not					
Wanted	96(99)	168(99)			
			0.69	1.75(0.108-28.3)	-
Unwanted	1(1)	1(1)			
Pressure for a male child					
Yes	20(21)	16(9)			
			0.011*	2.46(1.2-5)*	0.54(0.23-1.21)
No	77(79)	152(91)			

Table 3 Shows the Association between Obstetric factors and gender issues with Antenatal depression, Age at Marriage, Gravida, Trimester, History of Abortion, Pregnancy planned, and pressure of the male child were Statistically significant with Antenatal Depression in bivariate analyses but the age at marriage, trimester, history of abortion, pregnancy planned were only associated in multivariate analyses. Age at Marriage was Statistically Associated with Antenatal depression with an OR of 2.1 which means Marriages less than and equal to 18 years were 2.1 times odd of getting Antenatal depression than Marriages more than 18 years, Women

with more than 1 gravida were 1.7 times odds of getting depression than one gravida, Women with Abortion have 1.26 times odds of getting Antenatal depression than Women with no abortion history, Women who don't have planned pregnancy have 1.84 times odds of getting Antenatal depression than women with a planned pregnancy, pressure of male child have 2.46 times odds of getting Antenatal depression than with women with no pressure of male child. Taking the second trimester as a reference the amount of depression was 23 times higher in the first trimester and 1.62 times higher in the third trimester.

Table 4: previous psychiatric history, and Social Factors in prenatal depression (n=266)

Variables	Depression (n=97)	No depression (n=169)	p-value	COR(CI)
History of personal psychiatric illness				
Yes	11(11)	8(4)		
			0.024*	2.5(1.1-6.6)
No	86(89)	161(96)		
Support from parents				
Yes	92(95)	168(99)		
			0.026*	9.13(1.05-79)
No	5(5)	1(1)		
Support from spouse				
Yes	91(94)	168(99)		
			0.01*	11(1.31-93.4)
No	6(6)	1(1)		
Support from in-laws				
Yes	90(93)	167(99)		
			0.013*	6.49(1.32-31.9)
No	7(7)	2(1)		
History of alcoholism in spouse				
Yes	5(5)	1(1)		
			0.026*	9.1(1.05-79.3)
No	92(95)	168(99)		
History of violence/abuse in the family				
Yes	8(8)	4(2)		
			0.034*	3.7(1.08-12.65)
No	89(92)	165(98)		
History of Tobacco				
Yes	49	64		
			0.045*	1.67(1.01-2.77)
No	48(49)	105(62)		

Table 4 Shows the Association between Previous history of psychiatric illness, social factors, and antenatal depression. History of previous psychiatric illness, support from parents, in-laws ,spouse, history of alcoholism, tobacco consumption in spouse , history of domestic violence were statistically significant with the antenatal depression, and History of personal psychiatric illness was

Statistically Associated with Antenatal depression with an OR of 2.5 which means Women with the history of personal psychiatric illness were 2.5 times odd of getting Antenatal depression than women with no history of psychiatric illness, Women without support from parents were 9.1 times odds of getting depression than women with support from parents, Women without support from spouse have 11

times odds of getting Antenatal depression than Women with support from spouse, Women without support from in-laws have 6.5 times odds of getting Antenatal depression than women with support from in-laws, women with spouse with alcoholism have 9.1 times odds of getting Antenatal depression than with women with spouse with no history of Alcoholism, Women with presence of Domestic violence were having 3.7 times of getting Antenatal depression than with women without a history of domestic violence, Women with a spouse of having Tobacco history were having 1.67 times odds of getting Antenatal depression than with women with spouse no Tobacco history.

Discussion

In the present study, the prevalence of depression was found to be 37%. the prevalence of antenatal depression varies significantly across different populations and settings. Comparing this to previous studies, in India, the prevalence of antenatal depression ranges from 1.9% to 21.6% [15]. In Australia, the prevalence of antenatal and postnatal depressive symptoms was 6.2% and 3.3% of the cohort, respectively [16]. Globally, the prevalence of antenatal depression ranges from 7% to 20% in each trimester of pregnancy [17]. In the US, the prevalence of any antenatal depression was found to be 20.7%, with 15.0% of pregnant women experiencing major antenatal depression [18]. The variation in prevalence rates across different studies could be attributed to differences in study populations, methodologies, and screening tools used for diagnosing depression. Additionally, various risk factors such as lack of partner support, history of intimate partner violence, lower socioeconomic status, and cultural differences may contribute to the differences in prevalence rates [19].

It is important to note that the high prevalence of depression in the current study (37%) is considerably higher than most of the rates reported in the studies mentioned above. This could be due to differences in the study population or methodology, or it could indicate a particularly high prevalence of depression in the present population.

In the current study, Antenatal Depression is associated with Educational level, Socioeconomic status, Overcrowding, and family type ($P < 0.05$), this finding can be compared with the previous studies which were done by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) found that lower educational attainment was associated with increased risk of depressive symptoms, suggesting that this association may persist independent of other social and genetic factors [20]. Another study found that higher levels of educational attainment protect against depressive symptoms, as education is positively associated with factors thought to protect against symptoms of depression [21]. A study conducted in Europe found that low socio-economic status (SES) was associated with a higher prevalence of depression [22]. A study conducted among Nunavik Inuit adolescents found that household overcrowding was associated with psychological distress, including depressive symptoms [23].

Antenatal depression was also associated with Marriage < 18 years of age, History of Abortion, and pressure on male children which was consistent with previous studies, Marital status has also been linked to antenatal depression. One study found that antenatal depression was associated with marriage at less than 18 years [24]. Additionally, a history of abortion has been associated with an increased risk for postpartum psychiatric disorders, including depressive affect [25,26]. A study conducted in South India found that pressure to have a male child was associated with a generalized anxiety disorder (GAD) and depression during pregnancy [24].

The present study also explains the social factors which are responsible for prenatal depression, which was support from in-laws, spouse, and Parents, additionally, it was also associated with a history of alcoholism, Tobacco consumption from a spouse, and history of Domestic violence, which were consistent with the

previous studies According to a systematic review, the most relevant factors associated with antenatal depression or anxiety were lack of a partner or social support, history of abuse or domestic violence, previous history of psychiatric illness, poor marital relationship, stressful life events, a negative attitude towards the pregnancy, and lack of social support [27].

Domestic abuse and mental health disorders are strong risk factors for perinatal depression. Women with probable antenatal depression were three times more likely to have experienced domestic abuse in their lifetime and five times more likely to have experienced domestic abuse during pregnancy [28]. In addition, a study conducted in Australia found that early professional support can help women with antenatal depression recover sooner. Emotional and practical support from partners can also help women with antenatal depression [29].

Conclusion

Antenatal depression is a common mental health issue that can affect women during pregnancy. Lack of partner or social support, history of abuse or domestic violence, previous history of psychiatric illness, poor marital relationship, stressful life events, a negative attitude towards the pregnancy, and lack of social support are some of the factors associated with antenatal depression. Women with a previous history of depression, Counterpart tobacco consumption status, and those who have experienced intimate partner violence are at higher risk of developing antenatal depression. Early professional support and emotional and practical support from partners can help women with antenatal depression recover sooner.

Limitations of the study

- The study is cross-sectional, which means that it only provides a snapshot of depression prevalence and predictors at a specific point in time, and cannot establish causality
- The study was conducted in a specific district or region, which may limit the generalizability of the findings to other settings
- The study relied on self-reported data, which may be subject to recall bias and social desirability bias
- The study did not assess the impact of depression on maternal and fetal outcomes

Recommendations of the study

- Early identification of pregnant women suffering from antenatal depression is important, and relevant support should be provided
- Efforts are needed to strengthen or develop protocols for the early identification of pregnant women suffering from antenatal depression and provide relevant support
- Healthcare providers should be trained to identify and manage antenatal depression and to provide appropriate referrals for women who need more intensive treatment
- Further research is needed to identify effective interventions for preventing and treating antenatal depression and to assess the impact of depression on maternal and fetal outcomes

Ethical Approval and Consent to participate

The study was conducted after ethical approval from the Institutional Ethical Committee Of the institute, Ref number (92/01/2023), and Written Informed Consent was taken in their Vernacular Language.

Conflicts of Interest

No

Funding Statement

None

Authors' Contributions

All Authors equally Contributed to making the manuscript, all authors read and approved the final Manuscript.

Acknowledgments

We would like to acknowledge All our seniors, Facilities, and Colleagues, and we like to be thankful for the constant support from the Head of the PSM department, the Head of the obstetrics and Gynecology Department, and the Head of the institute. we like to thank FHWs, and the Nurses of the ANC clinic, we also like to thank Intern doctors who contributed their role in the study by active participation. Last but not least we thankful to all the pregnant Women who were participated in the study.

References

- [1] Gavin, N. I., Gaynes, B. N., Lohr, K. N., Meltzer-Brody, S., Gartlehner, G., & Swinson, T. (2005). Perinatal depression: A systematic review of prevalence and incidence. *Obstetrics & Gynecology*, 106(5 Pt 1), 1071-1083.
- [2] Gelaye, B., Rondon, M. B., Araya, R., & Williams, M. A. (2016). Epidemiology of maternal depression, risk factors, and child outcomes in low-income and middle-income countries. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, 3(10), 973-982.
- [3] Deave, T., Heron, J., Evans, J., Emond, A., & The ALSPAC Study Team. (2008). The impact of maternal depression in pregnancy on early child development. *BJOG: An International Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology*, 115(8), 1043-1051.
- [4] Lancaster, C. A., Gold, K. J., Flynn, H. A., Yoo, H., Marcus, S. M., & Davis, M. M. (2010). Risk factors for depressive symptoms during pregnancy: A systematic review. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology*, 202(1), 5-14.
- [5] Bittner, A., Peukert, J., Zimmermann, C., & Junge-Hoffmeister, J. (2020). Depressive symptoms during pregnancy: Evidence from a West German cohort study. *Frontiers in Psychiatry*, 11, 6.
- [6] Bloch, M., & Daly, R. C. (2003). Review: Rubin's Pathology: Clinicopathologic Foundations of Medicine. *Pathology - Research and Practice*, 199(9), 639.
- [7] Sullivan, P. F., Neale, M. C., & Kendler, K. S. (2000). Genetic epidemiology of major depression: Review and meta-analysis. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 157(10), 1552-1562.
- [8] Field, T., Diego, M., & Hernandez-Reif, M. (2006). Prenatal depression effects on the fetus and newborn: A review. *Infant Behavior and Development*, 29(3), 445-455.
- [9] Grigoriadis, S., VonderPorten, E. H., Mamisashvili, L., Tomlinson, G., Dennis, C. L., Koren, G., ... & Steiner, M. (2013). The impact of maternal depression during pregnancy on perinatal outcomes: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Clinical Psychiatry*, 74(4), e321-e341.
- [10] Stein, A., Pearson, R. M., Goodman, S. H., Rapa, E., Rahman, A., McCallum, M., ... & Pariante, C. M. (2014). Effects of perinatal mental disorders on the fetus and child. *The Lancet*, 384(9956), 1800-1819.
- [11] Raghavan, V., Khan, H. A., Seshu, U., Rai, S. P., Durairaj, J., Aarthi, G., Sangeetha, C., John, S., & Thara, R. (2021). Prevalence and risk factors of perinatal depression among women in rural Bihar: A community-based cross-sectional study. *Asian Journal of Psychiatry*, 56. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ajp.2021.102552>
- [12] Dahiya N, Aggarwal K, Kumar R. Prevalence and correlates of antenatal depression among women registered at an antenatal clinic in North India. *Tzu Chi Med J* 2020; 32(3): 267-71.
- [13] Levis, B., Benedetti, A., Tombs, B. D. Accuracy of patient health questionnaire-9 (PHQ-9) for screening to detect major depression: Individual participant data meta-analysis. *bmj* 365(2019).
- [14] Gelaye, B. et al. Validity of the patient health questionnaire-9 for depression screening and diagnosis in East Africa. *Psychiatry Res.* 210(2), 653–661 (2013).
- [15] Kantipudi, S. J., Kannan, G., Viswanathan, S., Ranganathan, S., Menon, J., & Ramanathan, S. (2020). Antenatal Depression and Generalized Anxiety Disorder in a Tertiary Hospital in South India. *Indian Journal of Psychological Medicine*, 42(6), 513-518. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0253717620928440>
- [16] Ogbo, F.A., Eastwood, J., Hendry, A. et al. Determinants of antenatal depression and postnatal depression in Australia. *BMC Psychiatry* 18, 49 (2018). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12888-018-1598-x>
- [17] Dadi, A.F., Miller, E.R., Bisetegn, T.A. et al. Global burden of antenatal depression and its association with adverse birth outcomes: an umbrella review. *BMC Public Health* 20, 173 (2020). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-020-8293-9>
- [18] Yin, X., Sun, N., Jiang, N., Xu, X., Gan, Y., Zhang, J., Qiu, L., Yang, C., Shi, X., Chang, J., & Gong, Y. (2021). Prevalence and associated factors of antenatal depression: Systematic reviews and meta-analyses. *Clinical Psychology Review*, 83, 101932. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpr.2020.101932>
- [19] Míguez, M. C., & Vázquez, M. B. (2021). Risk factors for antenatal depression: A review. *World Journal of Psychiatry*, 11(7), 325-336. <https://doi.org/10.5498/wjp.v11.i7.325>
- [20] Cohen AK, Nussbaum J, Weintraub MLR, Nichols CR, Yen IH. Association of Adult Depression With Educational Attainment, Aspirations, and Expectations. *Prev Chronic Dis* 2020;17:200098. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.5888/pcd17.200098>
- [21] McFarland, M. J., & Wagner, B. G. (2015). Does a College Education Reduce Depressive Symptoms in American Young Adults? *Social science & medicine* (1982), 146, 75. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2015.09.029>
- [22] Freeman, A., Tyrovolas, S., Koyanagi, A., Chatterji, S., Leonardi, M., Ayuso-Mateos, J. L., Tobiasz-Adamczyk, B., Koskinen, S., Rummel-Kluge, C., & Haro, J. M. (2016). The role of socio-economic status in depression: Results from the COURAGE (aging survey in Europe). *BMC Public Health*, 16. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-016-3638-0>
- [23] Pepin, C., Muckle, G., Moisan, C., Forget-Dubois, N., & Riva, M. (2018). Household overcrowding and psychological distress among Nunavik Inuit adolescents: A longitudinal study. *International Journal of Circumpolar Health*, 77(1). <https://doi.org/10.1080/22423982.2018.1541395>
- [24] Kantipudi, S. J., Kannan, G., Viswanathan, S., Ranganathan, S., Menon, J., & Ramanathan, S. (2020). Antenatal Depression and Generalized Anxiety Disorder

- in a Tertiary Hospital in South India. *Indian Journal of Psychological Medicine*, 42(6), 513-518. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0253717620928440>
- [25] Giannandrea, A. M., Cerulli, C., Anson, E., & Chaudron, L. H. (2013). Increased Risk for Postpartum Psychiatric Disorders Among Women with Past Pregnancy Loss. *Journal of Women's Health*, 22(9), 760-768. <https://doi.org/10.1089/jwh.2012.4011>
- [26] Tesfaye, Y., & Agenagnew, L. (2021). Antenatal Depression and Associated Factors among Pregnant Women Attending Antenatal Care Service in Kochi Health Center, Jimma Town, Ethiopia. *Journal of Pregnancy*, 2021. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2021/5047432>
- [27] Biaggi, A., Conroy, S., Pawlby, S., & Pariante, C. M. (2016). Identifying the women at risk of antenatal anxiety and depression: A systematic review. *Journal of Affective Disorders*, 191, 62-77. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jad.2015.11.014>
- [28] *British Journal of Midwifery*. (2018). The cyclical and intergenerational effects of perinatal domestic abuse and mental health. Retrieved from <https://www.britishjournalofmidwifery.com/content/clinical-practice/the-cyclical-and-intergenerational-effects-of-perinatal-domestic-abuse-and-mental-health/>
- [29] Raising Children Network. (2022). Postnatal depression: How you can help your partner. Retrieved from <https://raisingchildren.net.au/grown-ups/fathers/mental-health-wellbeing/pnd-your-partner>



Open Access This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons license, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third-party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons license, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons license and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this license, visit <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>.

© The Author(s) 2023